

Earth Observations from DSCOVR/EPIC Instrument

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Abstract

The NOAA Deep Space Climate Observatory (DSCOVR) spacecraft was launched on February 11, 2015, and in June 2015 achieved its orbit at the first Lagrange point or L1, 1.5 million km from Earth towards the Sun. There are two NASA Earth observing instruments onboard: the Earth Polychromatic Imaging Camera (EPIC) and the National Institute of Standards and Technology Advanced Radiometer (NISTAR). The purpose of this paper is to describe various capabilities of the DSCOVR/EPIC instrument. EPIC views the entire sunlit Earth from sunrise to sunset at the backscattering direction (scattering angles between 168.5° and 175.5°) with 10 narrowband filters: 317, 325, 340, 388, 443, 552, 680, 688, 764 and 779 nm. We discuss a number of pre-processing steps necessary for EPIC calibration including the geolocation algorithm and the radiometric calibration for each wavelength channel in terms of EPIC counts/second for conversion to reflectance units. The principal EPIC products are total ozone O_3 amount, scene reflectivity, erythemal irradiance, UV aerosol properties, sulfur dioxide SO_2 for volcanic eruptions, surface spectral reflectance, vegetation properties, and cloud products including cloud height. Finally, we describe the observation of horizontally oriented ice crystals in clouds and the unexpected use of the O_2 B-band absorption for vegetation properties.

Capsule Summary

The Earth Polychromatic Imaging Camera (EPIC) on board DSCOVR spacecraft is located at 1 million miles from Earth towards the Sun. This paper describes EPIC calibration and products.

1. Introduction

The Deep Space Climate Observatory (DSCOVR) was launched on February 11, 2015 to a Sun-Earth Lagrange-1 (L1) orbit, approximately 1.5 million kilometers from Earth towards the Sun. Its mission is to provide continuous solar wind measurements for accurate space weather forecasting, and to observe the continuously full, sunlit disk of Earth from a new and unique vantage point. The DSCOVR mission is a joint venture between NOAA, NASA and the U.S. Air Force. NOAA is operating the spacecraft and performs operational space weather forecasting using the DSCOVR solar wind plasma and interplanetary magnetic field measurements. The Air Force provided the SpaceX Falcon 9 launch vehicle. NASA built the spacecraft, performed on-orbit checkout, and operates the two Earth-facing science instruments -- the Earth Polychromatic Imaging Camera (EPIC) and the NIST Advanced Radiometer (NISTAR). This paper is limited to applications related to the EPIC instrument.

EPIC consists of a 30-cm aperture Cassegrain telescope with a 0.62° field of view (FOV), which encompasses the Earth having a nominal size of 0.5° at the L1 vantage point. Light entering the Cassegrain telescope passes through a field-lens group, then a filter wheel, and finally is focused on a hafnium-coated 2048 x 2048 pixel CCD with sensitivity to UV, visible, and near-infrared (NIR) wavelengths. The filter wheel contains 10 narrow band filters from 317.5 nm to 779.5 nm that were designed to obtain products similar to TOMS (Total Ozone Mapping Spectrometer, e.g., Herman et al., 1997) and MODIS (Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer, e.g., King et al., 1992). During the refurbishment phase, prior to launch, changes were made that

significantly improved EPIC capabilities. The primary changes were a significant reduction of stray light (new filters and field lens group) and addition of the oxygen A- and B-bands to sense cloud and aerosol heights.

Projected on the three-dimensional (3D) Earth, the sampling size is about 8 km at nadir (near the center of the image), which effectively increases to 10 km when EPIC's point spread function is included. In order to maximize time cadence by reducing transmission time, the images of all wavelength channels, except 443 nm, have been reduced to 1024 x 1024 pixels. This yields a resolution of 10 km for the color images, which has been verified by looking at the width of major low latitude rivers in Brazil and Egypt. Of course, the effective resolution is proportional to the secant of the observing angle measured relative to the normal to the Earth's surface (10 km at nadir and 20 km at 60°). The result for 2x2 pixel averaging is a spatial resolution at nadir of about 18 km.

The Earth-observing geometry of the EPIC instrument is characterized by a nearly constant scattering angle (angle formed between the incident and scattered-to-satellite sunlight vectors) between 168.5° and 175.5°. Figure 1 displays the Sun-Earth View (SEV) angle that is equal to 180° minus scattering angle. The DSCOVR orbit around L1 is smaller than that of SOHO (Solar and Heliospheric Observatory) and Wind, but similar to that of ACE (Advanced Composition Explorer). It is important to note that the distance between DSCOVR and Earth changes approximately by 2000-2500 km per day, as part of its non-repeating Lissajous orbit, or about 0.16% of its nominal distance of 1.5×10^6 km.

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95 For the 4 UV channels, 317.5, 325, 340, and 388 nm, in-flight radiometric calibration is

96 accomplished by comparison to the reflectance values measured by current well-

97 calibrated Low Earth Orbit (LEO) satellites observing scenes that match in time and

98 observing angles with those from EPIC (Herman et al., 2018, see section 2.3).

99 Calibration of the visible and NIR channels is accomplished using well-calibrated

100 measured earth reflectance values obtained from the Terra and Aqua MODIS LEO

101 satellite observations. Lunar reflectance data are used to help calibrate the two

102 wavelength channels sensitive to the Earth's oxygen absorption (oxygen B- and A-bands:

103 687.75 and 764.0 nm) relative to their adjacent reference channels 680 and 779.5 nm.

104 The details of these calibration procedures are described in Section 2, below.

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106 There are natural and enhanced color EPIC images provided daily on the

107 <https://epic.gsfc.nasa.gov> website. The natural color images were created using the bands

108 from EPIC that are within the human visual range. They have been color, contrast and

109 brightness adjusted to represent a human eye would perceive. The RGB ratios of the

110 enhanced color images were processed to emphasize land features. In addition, the

111 Rayleigh molecular scattering and attenuation of solar light by ozone was subtracted.

112 The calculations accounted for Earth's spherical geometry.

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114 While MODIS on Terra and Aqua cross the equator at 10:30 and 13:30, respectively,

115 DSCOVR/EPIC provides measurements of the sunlit face of Earth from sunrise to sunset.

116 Figure 2 illustrates the key difference between the L1 (EPIC) and LEO (MODIS)

117 observations, where the EPIC's observation of Africa is at 10:56 UTC. Since Terra

crosses equator at 10:30, the western part of the left image has a more similar cloud structure with EPIC (middle) than their eastern parts. For Aqua crossing the equator at 13:30, the eastern part of the right (MODIS) and middle (EPIC) images are more alike than their western parts.

The paper structure is the following. Next section discusses EPIC calibration starting from raw data, then the geolocation algorithm for Level 1 data; finally calibration of all EPIC channels converting engineering units of counts/second into reflectance. Section 3 describes Level 2 products. First, there are O₃ and Lambert Equivalent Reflectivity retrievals, then SO₂ for volcanic eruptions and aerosol products, including atmospheric correction are discussed. Description of cloud and vegetation Level 2 products completes this section. Section 4 reports on first expected and unexpected capabilities of EPIC observations. Finally, section 5 summarizes the results.

2. Calibration

2.1 Raw EPIC data calibration

Before the raw EPIC data (counts/second) can be used for imagery and quantitative applications, a number of pre-processing steps must be taken. Level-0 EPIC data are converted to Level-1A “corrected count rates” by correcting for detector, electronics, and optics-induced effects. The major steps in the Level-0 to Level-1A conversion are 1) subtracting the dark offset and dark rate signals, 2) correcting electronics signal dependent non-linearity, 3) correcting thermal dependence of the EPIC sensitivity, 4) normalizing by the image integration time, 5) “flat-fielding” in order to remove pixel-to-

pixel sensitivity differences, vignetting, and etaloning effects, and 6) correcting stray-light effects to account for light that should be going to a particular pixel, but instead is scattered to other pixels. The dark offset correction utilizes overclock pixels (Habibi, 2017) present in each image and the dark rate correction is based on analysis of weekly in-flight shutter-closed dark rate measurements. EPIC non-linearity, temperature sensitivity, and stray light corrections have been derived from pre-launch test data. The EPIC flat-field correction is based on pre-flight test data and updated using analysis of in-flight terrestrial observations taken over the first year of science operations. Finally, for Level-1B data, the radiometric calibration factors for each wavelength channel are determined in terms of EPIC counts/second conversion to reflectance units (Geogdzhayev and Marshak, 2018; Herman et al., 2018).

2.2 Geolocation Algorithm for Level-1A/1B Data

EPIC image geolocation is a process which calculates the per-pixel latitude and longitude location for each wavelength's image. This includes both the astronomical calculations to relate the scene to the instrument, as well as heuristical calculations to correct errors beyond the spacecraft instrumentation accuracy and achieve pixel to coordinate accuracy, as well as pixel-to-pixel co-registration between images on different filters. There are a number of challenges to achieving this correction, such as dealing with the rotation of the earth due to the .5-2 minute latency between imaging different wavelengths, correction for spacecraft rotation, jitter, atmospheric refraction correction, as well as an accurate optical model of the telescope. The process of geolocation and georectification requires the images to be accurately mapped to a 3D model of the earth.

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166 The Level 1A algorithm includes all the calculations required for geolocation on the
167 images in their native format. This uses the ephemerides and other spacecraft
168 information to generate a 3D view of the Earth in the same aspect as seen from EPIC at
169 L1. A two-dimensional (2D) transformation of the 3D model, as it would appear on the
170 CCD, is obtained using an instrument optical and model calculation. This 2D
171 transformation in turn provides the per-pixel geodetic coordinates, as well as sun and
172 viewing angles. Figure 3 depicts this process.

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175 The Level 1B algorithm produces images in which all wavelengths are regridded to the
176 same common grid. This includes correcting the images for changes in the scene due to
177 Earth's rotation, drift in spacecraft pointing, and the spacecraft's own orbital motion. As
178 outlined in Fig. 3, the Level 1B algorithm takes the location information generated and
179 maps the EPIC pixels into 3D models, 1 per band. Each model is then rotated into the
180 same orientation (north up, at a common universal time UT) and then projected and
181 redrawn into a 2D image. The result is all 10 wavelength band images share the same
182 reference grid so that light for each pixel and wavelength comes from the same earth
183 scene. This is essential, since most of the science algorithms rely on ratios of different
184 wavelength channels.

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186
187 There are still residual issues that affect the geolocation accuracy. This includes errors
188 with the star-tracker pointing, accuracy of the telescope optical model, image time stamps,
189 and effects of atmospheric refraction. Work is currently underway that treats these

additional corrections to further improve science products beyond the basic requirements.

2.3 Calibration of EPIC UV channels

Since EPIC was launched without an accurate laboratory calibration, in-flight calibration transfer using other well-calibrated satellites was necessary. There were two suitable LEO satellites satellite instruments Aura/OMI (Ozone Monitoring Instrument, e.g. Torres et al., 2007) and Suomi-NPP/OMPS (National Polar-orbiting Partnership / Ozone Mapping and Profiler Suite, e.g., Li et al., 2017) that contain similar wavelength channels and are able to observe scenes that closely match in location and angles with those observed by EPIC. Of these, the best calibrated was OMPS, which has an albedo accuracy of 2% and a wavelength accuracy of better than 1% (Jaross et al., 2014).

Reflectance calibration was chosen, since the ratio of reflected radiance to the incoming solar flux mostly cancels the strong Fraunhofer line structure. The lack of line structure permits accurate interpolation needed to match the wavelength bands of EPIC. EPIC measures raw counts per second (C/S) based on permanently fixed exposure times designed to fill the CCD wells to approximately 80% for the brightest scenes in each of all 10 channels. Comparison with identical OMPS scenes produces EPIC multiplicative albedo calibration coefficients K_λ (Table 1) to convert C/S into top of the atmosphere reflectance $\pi I_\lambda / S_\lambda$. Here, I_λ is the radiance measured by OMPS at the top of the atmosphere and S_λ is the wavelength dependent solar flux corrected for the sun-earth distance. For the UV channels, there is a small secular change of a few percent per year. A more complete discussion is given in Herman et al. (2018).

2.4 Calibration of EPIC visible and near-IR channels

We used MODIS Aqua and Terra L1B 1-km bands 3 (central wavelength is 469 nm), 4 (555 nm), 1 (645 nm) and 2 (858.5 nm) reflectance values to infer calibration factors for four EPIC visible and near-IR channels: 443, 551, 680 and 780 nm, respectively. For each EPIC pixel we identified favorable MODIS pixels as follows: (i) spatially collocated within 25 km; (ii) temporally collocated within 10 min; and finally, (iii) having the same scattering angles within 0.5° .

We selected EPIC pixels that had at least 40 MODIS pixels within 25 km radius. Relative standard deviation was then calculated for the matching MODIS and EPIC pixels. In the latter case, a 5x5 pixel neighborhood was used to calculate the standard deviation. The value of the relative standard deviation was used to select the most homogeneous scenes. Two methods were used to determine the calibration coefficients from the most homogeneous scenes: first, linear regression between EPIC counts and MODIS reflectance values and second, mean MODIS/EPIC ratio for high MODIS reflectance (> 0.6) and small relative standard deviation (< 0.1).

The differences in the position and spectral width of the corresponding EPIC and MODIS channels may result in discrepancies when scenes with different spectral signatures are observed by the two instruments. To compensate, we employ spectral band adjustment factors (SBAFs) which convert MODIS reflectance values to equivalent EPIC reflectances for various surface types. These factors, in the form of linear regression

coefficients, were obtained from <http://www-angler.larc.nasa.gov/SBAF>, and are based on the analysis of SCHIAMACHY hyperspectral data (Scarino et al., 2016). To identify the land cover type for each matching EPIC pixel we use a data set developed by Channan et al (2014). The land cover type was identified based on a 0.5x0.5 degree re-projected version of the Global Mosaics of the standard MODIS land cover type data product (MCD12Q1) in the IGBP Land Cover Type Classification. Separate adjustment factors were used for MODIS Aqua and MODIS Terra data (Geogdzhayev and Marshak, 2018).

At the time of this writing, no degradation in the EPIC visible and near-IR bands has been detected, while the UV channels have a very small secular change (Herman et al., 2018). The calibration factors K_λ for these channels are given in Table 2.

2.5 Calibration of the EPIC O₂ absorbing bands using Lunar observations

To calibrate the EPIC O₂ absorbing bands, we used EPIC lunar observations at the time of the Full Moon as seen from the earth. Lunar reflectance R_λ does not increase much with a small wavelength change $\Delta\lambda$; a 10 nm difference in λ leads to a difference in R_λ in the range of 0.0006-0.0013 or 0.8-1.2% (e.g., Ohtake et al., 2010, 2013). It follows from this that the difference in moon reflectance between the O₂ B-band (688 nm) and the ‘red’ (680 nm) channels as well as between the O₂ A-band (764 nm) and the near-IR (780 nm) channels will be within 1.5%.

Since the calibration factors, K_λ , for $\lambda=680$ and 780 nm are assumed to be known from

in-flight comparisons between EPIC Earth observations and well-calibrated measured Earth reflectances obtained from the Terra and Aqua MODIS LEO satellite observations (see Section 2.4), we can obtain the calibration factors for the O₂ absorbing channels at 688 and 764 nm. Indeed, the ratio $F(\lambda_1, \lambda_2)$ of the lunar reflectance values measured in counts/sec at two neighboring channels λ_1 and λ_2 is very stable (Fig. 4). Thus, the calibration factor K_λ for $\lambda=688$ nm, can be approximated as

$$\begin{aligned} K_{688} &= R_{688}/R_{688}^{\text{counts}} = R_{688}/[R_{680}^{\text{counts}} F(680,688)] = \\ &= [R_{688}/R_{680}] K_{680}/F(680,688) \approx K_{680}/F(680,688). \end{aligned}$$

Similarly to 688 nm, the calibration factor for 764 nm can be estimated as

$$K_{764} \approx K_{780}/F(780,764).$$

Here, R_λ and $R_\lambda^{\text{counts}}$ are the values of calibrated reflectance and measured C/S at wavelength λ , respectively; K_λ is the multiplicative calibration coefficient expressed as a conversion from counts/second to reflectance at wavelength λ and the ratio $F(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) = R_{\lambda_2}^{\text{counts}}/R_{\lambda_1}^{\text{counts}}$. The calibration factors K_λ for these channels are given in Table 3.

The calibration factors for all 10 EPIC channels are also publicly available at [https://eosweb.larc.nasa.gov/project/dscovr/DSCOVr_EPIC_Calibration_Factors_V02.p](https://eosweb.larc.nasa.gov/project/dscovr/DSCOVr_EPIC_Calibration_Factors_V02.pdf)
df.

3. Products

3.1 EPIC ozone and Lambert Equivalent Reflectivity retrievals

Applying the OMPS derived calibration to EPIC's C/S to obtain earth albedos for each of the UV channels, the reflectances can be used to retrieve total column ozone (TCO), Lambert equivalent reflectivity (LER), aerosol optical depth and absorption, aerosol index (AI), and UV reflectance at the Earth's surface (Herman et al., 2018). Ozone retrieval requires the use of measured laboratory high spectral resolution absorption coefficients (Brion et al. (1993, 1998); Daumont et al. (1992); and Malicet et al. (1995)). The EPIC measured reflectance spectra are compared with a set of radiative transfer derived lookup tables for the EPIC filter transmission functions and for a wide range of ozone values. LER, AI, and ozone are retrieved simultaneously with a maximum resolution of 18 km at the sub-satellite point. A matched pair of ozone and LER images are shown in Fig. 5 for August 21, 2016 at 16:58 UT.

EPIC ozone has been compared to ozone retrieved from a Pandora Spectrometer Instrument (PSI) located in Boulder Colorado (Herman et al., 2015) matched in location and time (UTC) several times per day. The average agreement is $2.1 \pm 5.4\%$ (Fig. 6). An additional comparison (Fig. 7) has been made (Herman et al., 2018) with the assimilated ozone product from the Modern-Era Retrospective Analysis for Research and Applications, version 2 (MERRA-2) based on Microwave Limb Sounder (MLS) and total column ozone from the Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI). All of the structures in the EPIC ozone retrieval are present in the MERRA-2 assimilation model ozone, but with an average offset of about 3% (10 DU). Comparisons with MERRA-2 have been made using ozone data from other satellites (Wargan et al., 2017) that have similar offsets.

3.2 EPIC SO₂ retrievals for volcanic eruptions

Volcanic emissions of sulfur dioxide (SO₂) and ash have been measured by ultraviolet (UV) sensors on US and European polar-orbiting satellites since the late 1970s (Bluth et al., 1993; 1997; Carn et al., 2003; 2015; 2016; Carn and Krotkov, 2016; Guo et al., 2004; Krotkov et al., 1999a,b; Krueger 1983; 1995; 2000; Li et al., 2017; Pavolonis et al., 2013; Prata, 1989; Prata and Prata, 2014; Prata and Kerkmann, 2007; Prata et al., 2003; 2015; Realmuto 2000; Wen and Rose 1994). These observations permit detection of hazardous volcanic clouds in support of aviation safety management; however, they are generally available only once a day from LEO satellites with a delay at least 2-3 hours. More frequent observations can be crucial in providing timely warnings to mitigate threats to aviation safety. Current geostationary thermal infrared (TIR) imagers including MSG/SEVIRI, GOES-16/ABI and Himawari-8/AHI can detect and image volcanic SO₂ and ash plumes, taking advantage of high frequency observations and low latency to provide timely warnings to the public, and aviation authorities and operators (Prata 1989; Realmuto et al., 2000; Ackerman et al., 2008; Pavolonis et al., 2013). DSCOVR/EPIC provides the first opportunity to observe transient volcanic clouds globally from the L1 Lagrange point. The unique L1 vantage point offers the potential for multiple daily UV observations of drifting volcanic SO₂ and ash clouds globally using a single instrument.

The EPIC volcanic SO₂ algorithm is a modified version of the heritage Total Ozone Mapping Spectrometer (TOMS) 4-band algorithm, adapted to the EPIC wavelengths. The algorithm uses all four EPIC UV channels (317, 325, 340, 388 nm) to retrieve (*i*)

vertical column amounts of SO₂ and (ii) O₃, (iii) the Lambertian equivalent reflectivity (LER) at 388 nm, and (iv) its spectral dependence. The algorithm relies on spectral differences in the SO₂ and O₃ absorption cross sections to simultaneously quantify column amounts of the two gases. SO₂ is more absorbing than O₃ at the shortest UV channel (317 nm), whereas O₃ is more absorbing than SO₂ at the longer channel (325 nm). The retrieval is performed iteratively for each EPIC pixel. It starts with the climatological value of O₃ and zero SO₂ and first computes LER at 388 nm. Because the O₃ and SO₂ absorption are very weak at 388 nm, LER remains fixed during the iterations. The iterations start with climatological values of O₃ and zero SO₂. The algorithm then retrieves adjustments to the initial guess by matching measured and calculated sun-normalized backscattered UV (BUV) radiances in the shorter-wavelength spectral channels (317, 325 and 340 nm). The sensitivities (Jacobians) associated with linear perturbations in SO₂, O₃ and LER are computed for each UV spectral band using pre-computed backscattered UV radiances look-up tables that are numerically interpolated to the EPIC viewing geometry at each iteration. This algorithm appears to have adequate sensitivity to detect moderate to large volcanic eruptions from L1 at solar and view zenith angles less than ~70° (e.g., Fig. 8).

To increase sensitivity to small eruptions, a simplified version of the SO₂ algorithm has also been developed. It uses the 317 and 388 nm EPIC channels and an a-priori estimate of total ozone. The ozone is re-gridded and smoothed, which reduces channel-to-channel co-location errors. The radiances are normalized accounting for smooth ozone variations,

but excluding pixels with elevated SO₂. This error mitigation results in enhanced sensitivity to small volcanic SO₂ clouds.

No large tropical eruptions have occurred during the DSCOVR/EPIC mission to date (as of January 2018). However, the sensitivity of EPIC UV radiances to volcanic clouds has been demonstrated by the detection of several mid- to high-latitude eruptions in 2015-2017. Figure 8 shows EPIC SO₂ retrievals for the high-latitude eruption of Pavlof (Alaska, USA) in March 2016. Comparison with the low-Earth orbiting Suomi NPP-OMPS SO₂ data (Fig. 8c) collected at a similar time shows that EPIC clearly detects the proximal volcanic plume where SO₂ columns were highest (>10 Dobson Units: 1DU = 2.69×10^{16} molecules SO₂ cm⁻²), along with some of the distal plume. Note, that the EPIC viewing conditions were not ideal for this eruption, with a relatively high solar zenith angle in Alaska in March, but nevertheless the SO₂ cloud was detected in at least 2 EPIC exposures over approximately a 2-hour period on March 28-29 (Fig. 8 a,b), with the first observation ~90 minutes prior to the SNPP-OMPS overpass. The atmospheric infrared sounder (AIRS) on NASA Aqua satellite also detected the Pavlof SO₂ emissions and a coincident AIRS retrieval on ~23:30 UTC on March 28, using the method of Prata and Bernardo (2007), is shown in Fig. 8d. The total SO₂ mass of 33 kilotons (kT) measured by AIRS compares favorably with the EPIC retrievals, which detected ~25 kT of SO₂.

These EPIC exposures provide unique observations of SO₂ cloud transport and have great potential to provide new insight into the evolution of volcanic SO₂ emissions, as well as more timely detection and tracking of potentially hazardous volcanic clouds. Forecasting

the dispersion of volcanic clouds requires an estimate of the volcanic cloud altitude. The combination of total column SO₂ observations from polar orbiting satellites with trajectory analysis methods has proved useful for estimating volcanic cloud altitudes (Eckhardt et al., 2008; Krotkov et al., 2010; Hughes et al., 2012). Such techniques would be improved by assimilating more frequent observations of volcanic SO₂ from EPIC, enabling more rapid estimation of volcanic cloud altitude.

3.3 EPIC UV Aerosol Products

A variety of aerosol and aerosol-related products are derived from EPIC's observations. EPIC extends the multi-decadal long UV Aerosol Index (UVAI) record started in 1979 with TOMS (Herman et al., 1997; Torres et al., 1998) and currently available from OMI observations (Torres et al., 2007). The EPIC UVAI detects carbonaceous aerosols, desert dust particles, and volcanic ash over the oceans and the continents under both clear and partly cloudy conditions, as well as over extremely bright backgrounds such as snow/ice surfaces and cloud decks. In addition to the qualitative UVAI product, EPIC observations yield aerosol optical depth (AOD) in the UV-VIS range, and near-UV single scattering albedo for both absorbing and non-absorbing aerosol types under cloud-free conditions using a modified version of the OMI aerosol algorithm (Torres et al., 2007; Torres et al., 2013). Because of the sensor's coarse spatial resolution, sub-pixel cloud contamination affects both the frequency of retrievals and the quality of the retrieved aerosol parameters. Figure 9 shows retrievals of UVAI, aerosol optical depth, single scattering albedo and absorption optical depth associated with smoke and desert dust events in Africa.

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399 Recently developed retrieval approaches are applied to EPIC observations to obtain the
400 optical depth of aerosol layers above clouds, as well as the cloud optical depth unaffected
401 by aerosol absorption effects (Torres et al., 2012; Jethva et al., 2013). Additionally,
402 radiance measurements in the oxygen A- and B-bands are used to simultaneously derive
403 the optical depth and the height of elevated desert dust and smoke aerosol layers over the
404 oceans (Xu, et al., 2017).

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406 **3.4 Atmospheric Correction Suite**

407 DSCOVR-EPIC is contributing to the Surface Reflectance *Earth System Data Record*.
408 The shortcoming of EPIC's rather coarse spatial resolution is compensated by its high
409 (almost hourly) observation rate, which produces up to 8-12 images of the same area
410 from dawn to dusk, globally. This provides early morning observations, which are
411 unavailable from MODIS or VIIRS, for climatically important tropical regions of the
412 world such as Amazonia where tropical convection generates more clouds in the
413 afternoon. A comparison of statistics between MODIS Terra and Aqua shows about 10%
414 more clouds from MODIS Aqua with equatorial overpass time 13:30 as compared to
415 MODIS Terra crossing equator at 10:30 (Hilker et al., 2015).

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417 The surface products include spectral bidirectional reflectance factors (BRF, or surface
418 reflectance) and bidirectional reflectance distribution function (BRDF) represented by 3
419 parameters of the Ross-Thick Li-Sparse (Lucht et al., 2000) (RTLS) model. The suite

also includes cloud mask and aerosol optical thickness required for atmospheric correction.

The unique backscattering observation geometry of EPIC will allow us to revisit models of BRDF near the hot-spot direction (scattering angle close to 180 degrees). So far, only a limited analysis has been conducted based on POLDER multi-angle observations (e.g., Breon et al., 2002). Such models have a high importance for vegetation monitoring in tropics when geometric variation from shifting azimuthal plane overlays seasonal vegetation cycle (e.g., Bi et al., 2016).

Because EPIC differs significantly from MODIS or VIIRS in spectral bands and spatial and temporal resolution, a new processing algorithm is being developed based on elements of NASA Multi-Angle Implementation of Atmospheric Correction (MAIAC) algorithm originally developed for MODIS (Lyapustin et al., 2011, 2012). The main idea of MAIAC is to take advantage of differences in the space-time variability of atmosphere (aerosols and clouds) and surface to separate their contributions in measured radiance. Such an approach requires observing the same area over time, therefore EPIC processing starts with gridding observations to a 10 km regular sinusoidal grid. Continuous observations of the same grid cell over time yield multi-angle coverage for spectral BRDF retrievals, which then helps cloud detection and aerosol retrievals. MAIAC also characterizes spatial variability between adjacent grid cells under clear skies that helps cloud detection.

The EPIC MAIAC cloud detection employs a set of tests including absolute brightness test, spatial variability test, oxygen A, B-band test for cirrus detection, and “deviation from expected” test based on our knowledge of spectral surface BRDF which is translated to an expected top-of-atmosphere (TOA) reflectance. An additional filtering takes place during aerosol retrievals and atmospheric correction, which significantly increases overall data quality.

Aerosol retrieval is based on characterization of the surface spectral reflectance ratios from the time series of EPIC observations using the minimum reflectance method (e.g., Knapp, 2002). Following aerosol retrievals, the atmospheric correction stage includes BRDF retrieval and computation of surface reflectance (BRF). The BRDF retrieval uses linear inversion to derive three parameters of the RTLS BRDF model from the multi-angle EPIC dataset accumulated from 2-3 days of observations over each 10 km grid cell. A preliminary example of AC processing is shown in Fig. 10. It includes the RGB TOA EPIC image for 27 March 2016 at 1312 UTC (left), the atmospherically corrected land surface RGB image (middle), and retrieved aerosol optical thickness ($AOT_{0.44}$) both over land and ocean on the right.

3.5 EPIC Cloud Product

Over the years, cloud products from low Earth orbit (LEO) satellites, such as Terra, Aqua and the NOAA satellites (e.g., Parkinson 2003; Platnick et al. 2003; Heidinger et al. 2009) and from geostationary Earth orbit (GEO) satellites, such as GOES (e.g., Schmit et al., 2008, 2017), constitute the main global cloud property database. With the launch of

466 DSCOV, the EPIC instrument provides new opportunities for cloud related studies,
467 since it covers almost the entire sunlit half of the Earth. Consecutive observations during
468 the day make studying the cloud diurnal cycle on a global scale possible. EPIC cloud
469 products also provide a spatial context for the observations from LEO satellites, because
470 for every LEO observation at daytime, there are always closely collocated EPIC
471 observations. The half-globe synoptic snapshot feature of EPIC makes comparison
472 between synoptic GCM model outputs and observations intuitive (Holdaway and Yang,
473 2016a,b) and helps model validations.

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475 The EPIC Level 2 cloud products include Cloud Mask (CM), Cloud Effective Pressure
476 (CEP), Cloud Effective Height (CEH), and Cloud Optical Thickness (COT). All the
477 products are provided at the EPIC original temporal and spatial resolutions. CEP and
478 CEH are derived from the oxygen A- and B-bands, respectively. These data products
479 provide cloud properties of almost the entire sunlit side of the earth, which are important
480 for climate studies, cloud and weather system analysis, and earth radiation budget
481 calculations.

482

483 A suite of algorithms for generating the operational EPIC CM, CEP/CEH and COT
484 products has been developed (Yang et al., 2013; Meyer et al., 2016). (1) The EPIC CM is
485 based on the threshold method; surface is classified into three categories: land, deep
486 water and snow/ice; for each surface type, two independent tests are applied and the final
487 CM with confidence level is determined through combining the results from the two tests.
488 (2) For the CEP/CEH, the Mixed Lambertian-Equivalent Reflectivity (MLER) model

(e.g., Koelemeijer et al., 2001; Yang et al., 2013) is adopted, which assumes that an EPIC pixel contains two Lambertian reflectors, the surface and the cloud. This assumption simplifies the radiative transfer equation and cloud pressure can be retrieved using the oxygen A- and B-band pairs. Since the MLER model does not take into account the effect of photon penetration into clouds, the retrieved cloud pressure is an effective pressure. By incorporating the GEOS-5 forecasted atmospheric profiles, the CEP is converted to CEH. (3) The EPIC COT product is produced using the operational MODIS cloud retrieval infrastructure (Platnick et al., 2003). The MODIS system provides simultaneous two-channel retrievals of COT and cloud effective radius (CER), and cloud phase retrievals using a variety of spectral tests. However, since EPIC does not have particle size sensitive channels, a single channel retrieval algorithm was developed assuming fixed values for CER (Meyer et al., 2016). In addition, cloud phase determination capability for EPIC is limited; hence the EPIC COT product provides two retrievals for each cloudy pixel, one assuming liquid phase and the other ice phase. A likely cloud phase is also provided based on the CEH. An example of EPIC cloud products is given in Fig. 11. We note that the relatively big EPIC pixel size (~10 km at nadir) results in large number of partially cloudy pixels. This effect is taken into account in the CEP retrieval as the MLER model derives the effective cloud fraction first (Yang et al., 2013). For COT retrievals, coarser spatial resolution results in a smoother retrieval field compared to the fine resolution MODIS retrievals (Meyer et al., 2016).

3.6 EPIC Vegetation Product

The DSCOVR EPIC science product suite includes *Vegetation Earth System Data Record* (VESDR) that provides Leaf Area Index (LAI) and diurnal courses of Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI), Sunlit Leaf Area Index (SLAI) and Fraction of incident Photosynthetically Active Radiation (FPAR) absorbed by the vegetation (Yang et al., 2017). The product at 10 km sinusoidal grid and 65 to 110 minute temporal frequency is generated from the upstream EPIC BRF product (Sect. 3.4). Whereas LAI is a standard product of many satellite missions, global diurnal courses of FPAR, NDVI and SLAI are new satellite derived products (Fig. 12). Sunlit and shaded leaves exhibit different radiative response to incident Photosynthetically Active Radiation (400-700 nm) (Mercado et al., 2009; Stenberg, 1998), which in turn triggers various physiological and physical processes required for the functioning of plants. Leaf area and its sunlit portion are key state parameters in most ecosystem productivity models (Bonan et al., 2003; Chen et al., 2012; Dai et al., 2004; He et al., 2013; Mercado et al., 2009; Norman, 1982) and carbon/nitrogen cycle (Chen et al., 2003; Doughty and Goulden, 2008; Wang et al., 2001).

Theoretical basis of the operational algorithm is documented in (Yang et al., 2017) and summarized as follows. The Look-up-Table (LUT) approach implemented in the MODIS operational LAI/FPAR algorithm is adopted. The LUT has been significantly modified. First, its parameterization incorporates the canopy hot spot phenomenon (Fig. 13) and recent advances in the theory of canopy spectral invariants. This allows more accurate decoupling of the structural and radiometric components of the measured Bidirectional Reflectance Factor (BRF), improves scaling properties of the LUT and

consequently simplifies adjustments of the algorithm for data spatial resolution and spectral band compositions. Second, the stochastic radiative transfer equations are used to generate the LUT for all biome types. The equations naturally account for radiative effects of the three-dimensional canopy structure on the BRF and allow for an accurate discrimination between sunlit and shaded leaf areas. Third, the LUT entries are measurable, i.e., they can be independently derived from both below canopy measurements of the transmitted and above canopy measurements of reflected radiation fields. This feature makes possible direct validation of the LUT, facilitates identification of its deficiencies and development of refinements.

The BRF of the vegetation reaches its maximum in the backscattering directions (Fig. 13). This is the so-called hot spot effect: i.e. a sharp increase in canopy reflected radiation when scattering direction approaches the direction to the sun (Kuusk, 1991; Nilson, 1991; Qin et al., 1996; Ross and Marshak, 1988). The EPIC sensor therefore sees the brightest portion of the canopy reflected radiation. This feature allows us not only to directly obtain sunlit leaf area but also estimate how individual leaves reflect solar radiation, which is unique diagnostic information about leaf biochemical constituents (NRC, 2007, Ustin, 2013). Leaf optical properties can be described by the scattering coefficient, which is the fraction of the canopy intercepted radiation that has been reflected from, or diffusely transmitted through, the canopy (Knyazikhin et al., 2013). Figure 14 shows a false color image (688-551-680) of the scattering coefficient derived from DSCOVER EPIC images (Marshak and Knyazikhin, 2017). The radiation scattered by the vegetation

in backscattering directions is very strong, allowing the EPIC to see green leaves even through optically thin-clouds.

4. Expected and Unexpected Capabilities

4.1. Use of the oxygen B-band for monitoring vegetation

The EPIC Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI), defined (Tucker, 1979) as the ratio between the difference and the sum of the NIR (780 nm) and the red (680 nm) channels, is used to monitor vegetation dynamics. A useful estimate of vegetation density requires an accurate atmospheric correction. However, it was recently shown (Marshak and Knyazikhin, 2017) that if the EPIC O₂ B-band (688 nm) is used instead of the conventional red band 680 nm), the effect of the atmosphere (diffuse radiation) on remote sensing of surface reflectance is reduced and the residual uncertainties in atmospheric correction can be better tolerated. This is due to two factors: (i) the vegetated surface is sufficiently dark at 688 nm, and (ii) the O₂ absorbing atmosphere substantially reduces multiple scattering. Note that also at the slightly longer wavelength of 688 nm, there is less Rayleigh and aerosol scattering.

To support this statement, the spectral invariant approximation to the bidirectional reflection factor (BRF) of vegetated surface (Knyazikhin et al., 2011; Stenberg et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2017) was used. It was shown that the retrieval of a spectrally invariant coefficient (Marshak and Knyazikhin, 2017) determined by purely canopy structure is only weakly sensitive to the uncertainties in the spectral properties of the atmospheric optical depth above the canopy. On the other hand, the spectral scattering

coefficients at the EPIC green to NIR spectral bands are fully determined by the chlorophyll absorption spectrum and can be estimated from the TOA BRF and the approximated spectrally invariant coefficient (Fig. 14). It was demonstrated (Marshak and Knyazikhin, 2017) that the approximated values of spectral scattering coefficient at 551, 688 and 780 nm fit well the spectral shape of the ‘true’ scattering coefficient over vegetated land for all atmospheric conditions observed. The spectral signature of the chlorophyll absorption at these wavelengths is unique to green leaves. Consequently, the spectral scattering coefficient of the vegetated surface differs significantly from any one of other types of reflecting media, as illustrated in Fig. 14.

Figure 15 illustrates with two NDVIs with 780&680 (middle panel) and 780&688 (right panel) over Africa that the 780&688 NDVI better identifies patterns of dense vegetation compared to the 780&680 NDVI. This is because without an accurate atmospheric correction the 780&688 NDVI is more sensitive to the presence of the chlorophyll than the standard 780&680 one.

4.2 Detection of oriented ice crystals from 1.5 million km away

Many DSCOVR/EPIC images contain unexpected bright flashes of light over land, not usually seen by other satellites. Figure 16 provides an example of such flashes. Here we focus on flashes only over land so as not to be confused with glints over ocean water. Marshak et al. (2017) constructed a yearlong time series of flash latitudes, scattering angles and oxygen absorption to demonstrate conclusively that the flashes over land are specular reflections off tiny ice platelets, floating in air nearly horizontally.

602

603 The time series of latitudes of the detected flashes corresponds to a set of latitudes that
604 permit specular reflection for a given time of year. As the Earth's axial tilt (23.4°) causes
605 local zenith directions to vary, the glints reach their southernmost of $\sim 25^\circ$ S around
606 December 22 and their northernmost latitude of $\sim 25^\circ$ N around June 22. The detected
607 glints are near the equator around the equinoxes in March and September. The almost
608 complete coincidence of the measured latitudes with the theoretical curve constituted
609 compelling evidence for the ice crystal specular reflection hypothesis.

610

611 In addition, using EPIC measurements of absorption by molecular oxygen (O_2) via the
612 ratio of absorbing channel to adjacent non-absorbing channel reflectances, cloud height
613 was estimated for all detected flashes. Compared with radiative transfer simulations of
614 EPIC O_2 A- and B-band ratios, it was shown that that the glints occur within medium-
615 high clouds that are most likely to contain horizontally oriented ice platelets.

616

617 While we are not aware of any deep space or geostationary observations (36000 km)
618 observations of glint off tropospheric ice clouds reported in the literature, atmospheric
619 observations of such specular ice reflections have been made with ground-based lidars
620 (Sassen and Benson, 2001) and by satellites on low-Earth orbit: POLDER (Polarization
621 and Directionality of the Earth's Reflectances) polarized measurements (Chepfer et al.,
622 1999; Breon and Dubrulle, 2004; Noel and Chepfer, 2004), and CALIPSO (Cloud-
623 Aerosol Lidar and Infrared Pathfinder Satellite Observation) lidar returns (Noel and

Chepfer, 2010). All such cloud glint observations are bounded by an altitude of about 700 km and have broader angular resolution than EPIC.

Based on in-situ measurements of cirrus clouds (e.g., Korolev et al., 2000), tiny hexagonal platelets of ice, floating in air in nearly perfect horizontal alignment are likely responsible for the glints observed by EPIC over land. Cirrus clouds permanently cover more than 30% of the Earth surface and play a major role in the Earth's radiation budget (Stephens et al., 1990). Most of these clouds are composed of nonspherical ice crystals. The orientation of these crystals is difficult to detect; however, oriented particles create a very strong specular reflection (Yang et al., 2003) and, if their concentration is large enough, it can substantially increase cloud albedo compared to randomly oriented crystals.

4.3 EPIC Erythemat Irradiance

Synoptic ozone and cloud reflectivity and cloud transmission have been determined for most days during the current operating lifetime of DSCOVR. These may be used to estimate the erythemat irradiance at the earth's surface as a function of latitude, longitude (time of day), and altitude (Herman et al., 2018). The method is based on previous calculations (Herman, 2010) applied to polar orbiting satellites that measured ozone and reflectivity at 13:30 local time and then assumed that the same values applied to noon. The noon assumption can be applied to slowly varying ozone, but is not accurate for estimating the effects of cloud transmission T from rapidly varying cloud cover. This is especially true for local times other than noon. The calculation method outlined here for erythemat irradiance can be easily extended to other processes dependent on a

647 wavelength dependent action spectrum (Herman, 2010). Using the spectrally weighted
 648 erythemal Action spectrum $A_{ERY}(\lambda)$, the erythemal irradiance is derived from an integral
 649 over UV wavelengths λ ,

$$E_0(\theta, \Omega, T) = \int_{250}^{400} I(\lambda, \theta, \Omega, T) A(\lambda) d\lambda$$

$$250 < \lambda < 298 \text{ nm} \quad \log_{10}(A_{ERY}) = 0$$

$$298 < \lambda < 328 \text{ nm} \quad \log_{10}(A_{ERY}) = 0.094 (298 - \lambda)$$

$$328 < \lambda < 400 \text{ nm} \quad \log_{10}(A_{ERY}) = 0.015 (139 - \lambda)$$

650 $E_0(\theta, \Omega, T)$ is the erythemal irradiance at sea level from a radiative transfer calculation
 651 (Herman, 2010). The erythemal weighting function $\log_{10}(A_{ERY}(\lambda))$ is given by the
 652 standard fitting function (McKinley and Diffey, 1987). At altitude z , the calculation of
 653 erythemal irradiance $E(\theta, \Omega, z, T)$ (W/m^2) is defined in terms of the product $E_0(\theta, \Omega, T) \times$
 654 $H(\theta, \Omega, z)$, where $H(\theta, \Omega, z) = 1 + f(\theta, \Omega, z)$. Here f is the fractional increase of E_0 as a
 655 function of altitude for specified solar zenith angle θ and ozone amount Ω . The details
 656 and computational method are described in Herman (2010) and with extensions for
 657 $H(\theta, \Omega, z)$ in Herman et al. (2018).

658

659 An example of $E(\theta, \Omega, z, T)$ is shown in Fig. 17a for April 1, 2016 at 17:16 UTC. Local
 660 noon is near the center of the image with sunrise to the left (west) and sunset to the right
 661 (east). For this date, the sun is overhead just north of the equator producing very high
 662 values of erythemal irradiance $E(\theta, \Omega, z, T)$ corresponding to a UV index, UVI, of 13 at sea
 663 level in the Pacific Ocean ($\text{UVI} = 40 E(\theta, \Omega, z, T)$). Higher values ($\text{UVI}=16$) are seen in
 664 the Sierra Nevada Mountains in Mexico near 20°N . This particular day has some small

clouds over most of South America except for thick clouds over eastern Argentina. For the erythema irradiance, the presence of clouds reduces the amount of UV reaching the ground (blue color with a UV index of less than 4).

The increase with altitude is much more pronounced during the summer months over the Andes Mountains reaching above 4 km (over 13,000 feet). Figure 17b shows the large increases with altitude over the Andes Mountains for November 27, 2016, with the sun nearly overhead at 20°S latitude. Here the UV index ranges from 16 to 18, which agrees with previous ground-based measurements in this region (Cede et al., 2002). In the completely clear regions of the Andes Mountains the UV index is even higher than 18.

5. Summary

DSCOVR was launched on February 11, 2015 into a L1 orbit, about 1.5 million kilometers from Earth towards the Sun to provide continuous solar wind measurements and to observe the sunlit disk of Earth from a new and unique vantage point. The observation of the rotating sunlit face of the Earth is done by the DSCOVR/EPIC instrument, a 10-filter spectroradiometer (317.5 to 780 nm) with a maximum resolution of 10x10 km² for 443 nm at the sub-satellite point; the other 9 reduced resolution channels have 18x18 km² resolution. The main difference with Low Earth Orbit satellites (LEO) is that EPIC observes the full sunlit face of the Earth from sunrise to sunset at near backscattering directions (the scattering angle is between 168.5° and 175.5°). The frequency of EPIC observations is 68 to 110 minutes depending on the season (more frequently in summer, from mid-April to mid-October).

688

689 The EPIC in-flight calibration is done by comparison with well-calibrated LEO satellites:
690 Aura/OMI, Suomi-NPP/OMPS for UV bands, Terra/MODIS and Aqua/MODIS for
691 visible and near-IR bands. The calibration of O₂ absorbing bands are generated using the
692 calibrated neighboring channels and EPIC Lunar observations assuming that a 10 nm
693 difference in wavelength leads to a difference in reflectance of only 1%.

694

695 Calibrated EPIC measurements are used to produce several EPIC products including
696 ozone, erythema irradiance, SO₂, aerosol, cloud and vegetation properties. In particular,
697 total ozone level and SO₂ retrievals for volcanic eruptions, UV aerosol index, UV total
698 and absorption optical depths, UV single scattering albedo, surface spectral reflectance
699 and aerosol optical depth in visible channels, cloud mask, cloud optical depth and cloud
700 height, and, finally, vegetation and sunlit leaf area index and fraction of incident
701 photosynthetically active radiation absorbed by vegetation. Some of these products are
702 unique, e.g., the sunlit portion of the leaf area. As a matter of fact, sunlit and shaded
703 leaves exhibit different radiative response to incident radiation and sunlit fraction of leaf
704 area index is the key parameter in ecosystem productivity model. Other parameters are
705 also retrieved from LEO measurements, but a unique DSCOVR observational strategy
706 (backscattering direction and sunrise to sunset observations) leads an innovative
707 characterization of many of retrieved parameters.

708

709 There are well-expected and completely unexpected discoveries made from EPIC
710 observations. For example, since oxygen absorption in the B-band reduces the

contribution of multiple scattering (and diffuse radiation), we were able to use O₂ B-band (688 nm) to monitor vegetation instead of a red (680 nm) channel without requiring an atmospheric correction. We were able to explain the bright flashes of light over land seen in EPIC RGB imagery as specular reflection of tiny ice crystals floating nearly horizontally (Marshak et al., 2017). Finally, because of EPIC's L1 orbit, we were able to estimate the erythral irradiance and the daily variation of UV radiances from sunrise to sunset to measure skin reddening and potential sunburn from sunlight.

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1031

Tables

λ (nm) Center	$FWHM$ (nm)	K_λ	S_λ (mW/m ² /nm)
317.5±0.1	1.0	1.216E-04	819.0
325.0±0.1	1.0	1.111E-04	807.7
340.0±0.3	2.7	1.975E-05	995.8
388.0±0.3	2.6	2.685E-05	1003.

1032

1033 **Table 1.** Calibration factors (K_λ) and irradiance at 1 AU (S_λ) for four UV channels.

1034

λ (nm) Center	$FWHM$ (nm)	K_λ
443.0±1.0	2.6	8.340E-06
551.0±1.0	3.0	6.660E-06
680.0±0.2	1.6	9.300E-06
779.5±0.3	1.8	1.435E-05

1035

1036 **Table 2.** Calibration factors for three visible and one near-IR channel.

1037

λ (nm) Center	$FWHM$ (nm)	K_λ
687.75±0.2	0.84	2.020E-05
764.0±0.2	1.02	2.360E-05

1038

1039 **Table 3.** Calibration factors for two O2-band channels.

1040

A list of the complete figure captions

Figure 1. Sun Earth View (SEV) angle (left axis, red curve) and the distance between DSCOVR and Earth (right axis, blue curve) are plotted versus the day since January 1, 2015. Note that $SEV = 180^\circ - \text{scattering angle between solar and viewing directions}$. (SEV is usually stands for Sun Earth Vehicle where Vehicle refers to the Satellite).

Figure 2. DSCOVR/EPIC ‘enhanced’ image of Africa (middle) taken on March 22, 2016 at 10:56 UTC. Left and right images show MODIS Terra and MODIS Aqua 2330 km wide swaths of the same area taken on the same day. Note that West Africa follows UTC time while East Africa is UTC plus 3 hours. Terra crosses equator at 10:30 am local time so that the western swath of the left image (Terra) resembles cloud structure on the left part of the EPIC image. Since Aqua crosses equator at 13:30 local time, the eastern Aqua swath part of the right (Aqua) and middle (EPIC) images are alike. Also note that the adjacent swaths of the MODIS examples are approximately 100 min apart.

Figure 3. Schematic diagram of the geolocation process in Level 1A algorithm.

Figure 4. Moon observations. Ratios of Moon reflectance F in counts/sec at 688 over 680 nm and at 764 over 780 nm channels averaged over Moon pixels.

Figure 5. EPIC retrieved ozone and LER values for April 21, 2016 at 16:58 UTC. The ozone scale is from 100 to 500 DU, and the LER scale is from 0 to 100 percent.

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Figure 8. SO₂ maps for the March 2016 eruption of Pavlof volcano (AK, USA; triangle). SO₂ in the Pavlof volcanic ash cloud was detected in two EPIC exposures at (a) 21:54 UTC on March 28 and (b) 00:08 UTC on March 29; (c) Suomi-NPP/OMPS SO₂ measurements at ~23:25 UTC on March 28 produced using a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) SO₂ algorithm assuming a mid-tropospheric (TRM) volcanic plume

located at 5-10 km altitude (Li et al., 2017); (d) Aqua/AIRS SO₂ measurements at ~23:29-23:35 UTC on March 28.

Figure 9. EPIC derived UV aerosol index (top left), 388 nm aerosol optical depth (top right), 388 nm single scattering albedo (bottom left) and aerosol absorption optical depth (bottom right) derived from observations on August 7, 2016, 10:25 UTC.

Figure 10. An example of EPIC data processing on 27 March 2016 at 1312 UTC: a) EPIC TOA RGB, b) atmospherically corrected RGB surface reflectance, 3) aerosol optical depth (AOD).

Figure 11. Sample EPIC L2 cloud products for the observations at 14:57 UTC on June 23, 2016: (a) EPIC RGB image; (b) EPIC cloud mask. 1: high confidence clear, 2: low confidence clear, 3: low confidence cloudy, and 4: high confidence cloudy; (c) oxygen A-band cloud effective pressure; (d) cloud optical thickness assuming liquid phase; (e) cloud optical thickness assuming ice phase; (f) most likely cloud phase. Other L2 cloud products not shown include oxygen B-band cloud effective pressure, and A- and B-band cloud effective height.

Figure 12. NDVI, FPAR and SLAI on Aug-23-2016 at 15:24:58 UTC. Corresponding EPIC image of the sunlit Earth is shown in Fig. 13.

Figure 13. Left panel: enhanced RGB image of the sunlit face of the Earth (<http://epic.gsfc.nasa.gov/enhanced>) taken on Aug-23-2016 at 15:24:58 UTC. Left panel: NIR BRF of an area in Amazonian rain forest shown as red circle derived from MISR data (symbols) and EPIC (white square). Horizontal axis shows values of the phase angle, i.e., the angle between directions to the Sun and sensor.

Figure 14. Vegetation dynamics. False color image (688-551-680) of the scattering coefficient derived from DSCOVR EPIC images taken on Feb-11-2016 at 13:22 UTC and Aug-23-2016 at 13:14 UTC using a simple algorithm documented in (Marshak & Knyazikhin, 2017). The green color indicates green leaves that EPIC sees through the atmosphere. The images capture changes in savannas from wet (approximately June to September) and dry (October to May) seasons when area of green leaves increases during the wet season and decreases during the dry season.

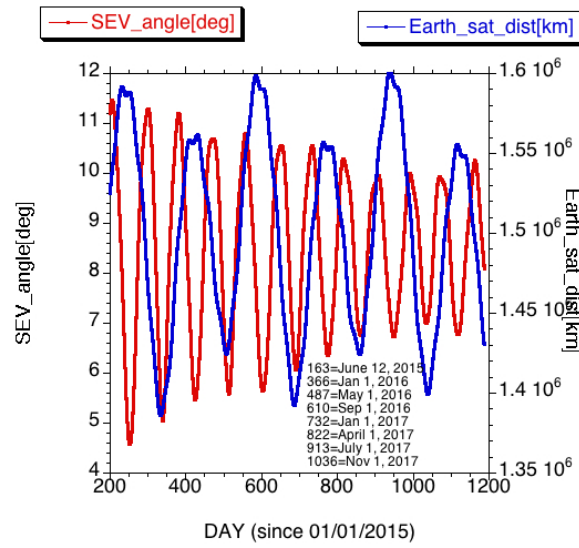
Figure 15. MODIS and EPIC NDVIs. The left panel shows MODIS/Terra surface NDVI composited over March, 2016 (<https://giovanni.gsfc.nasa.gov/giovanni/>). The middle and the right panels are EPIC NDVIs for March 22, 2016 (10:52 UTC) calculated with the red and O2 B-band channels, respectively. The insert in the right panel is the RGB plot. The use of the O2 B-band enhances the sensitivity of the TOA NDVI to the presence of vegetation. Note that EPIC data do not have any atmospheric correction nor cloud mask. Areas with high MODIS NDVI and very small EPIC NDVI are likely covered by clouds. From Marshak and Knyazikhin (2017).

Figure 16. An example of terrestrial glint. A true-color composite image captured on Oct. 28, 2015 at 9:46 UTC is shown (all EPIC true-color images are available at <http://epic.gsfc.nasa.gov>). The pixel size is about $10 \times 10 \text{ km}^2$ and angular spread $\sim 3 \times 10^{-4}$ degree. A wheel inside EPIC spins color filters, causing a time lag between the component images: ~ 3 min between blue (443 nm) and green (551 nm), ~ 4 min between blue and red (680 nm), resulting in a coloration effect in the imagery. The framed region contains a bright colorful spot discernible by a naked eye and centered at 8.31° S and 25.5° E (magnified in the inset).

Figure 17. Erythematous irradiance. (a) April 1, 2016 over Central and South America. (b) November 27, 2016 over South America.

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Figures

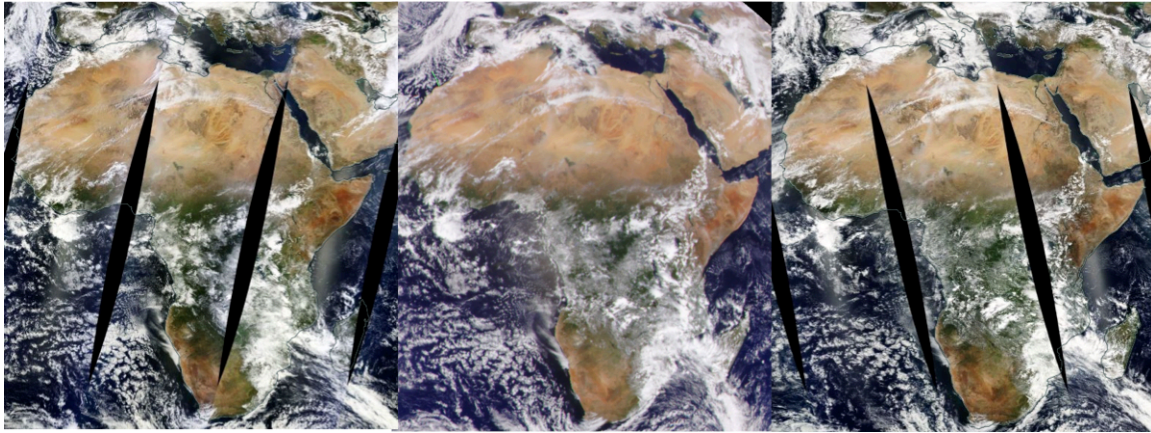


1111

1112

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1117



1118

1119

MODIS Terra

EPIC 10:56 GMT

MODIS Aqua

1120

10:30 equatorial crossing time

13:30 equatorial crossing time

1121

1122

Figure 2. DSCOVR/EPIC ‘enhanced’ image of Africa (middle) taken on March 22, 2016 at 10:56 UTC.

1123

Left and right images show MODIS Terra and MODIS Aqua 2330 km wide swaths of the same area taken

1124

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1127

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1128

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1129

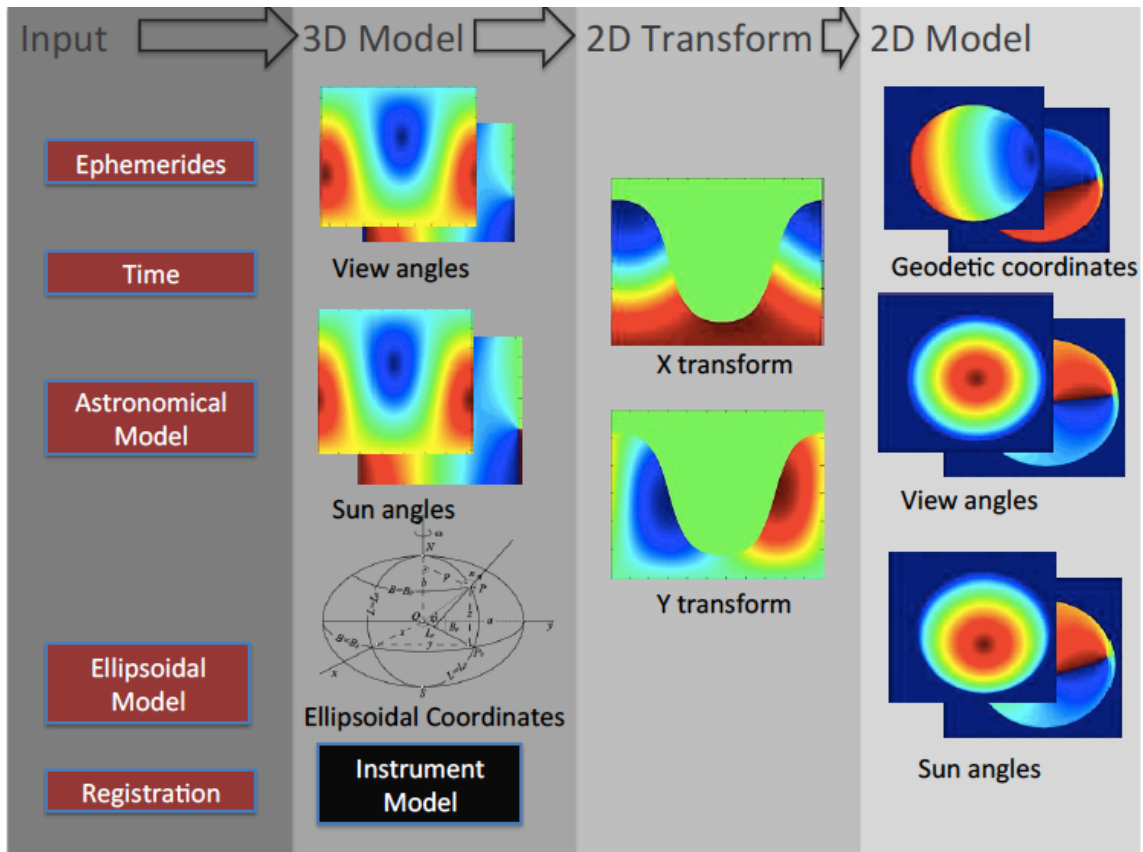


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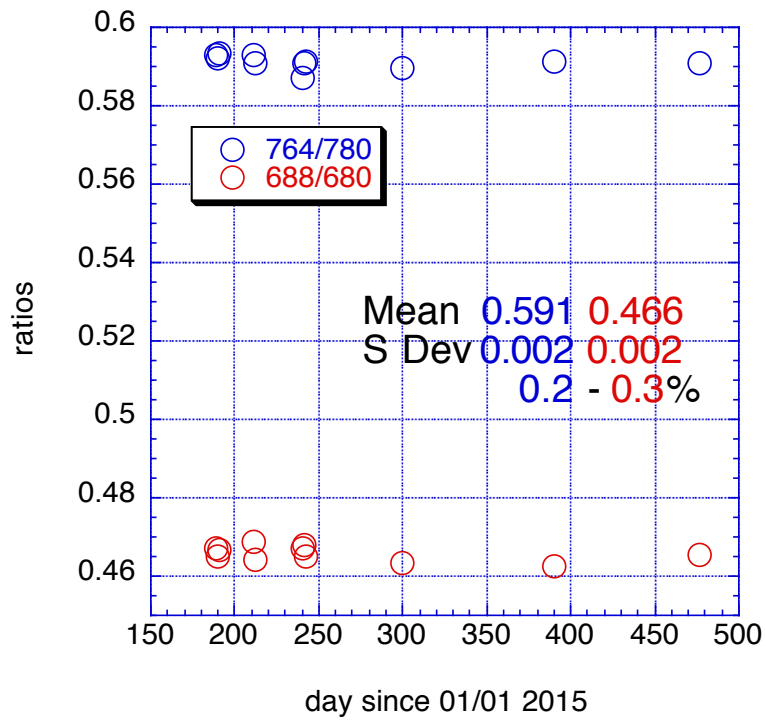


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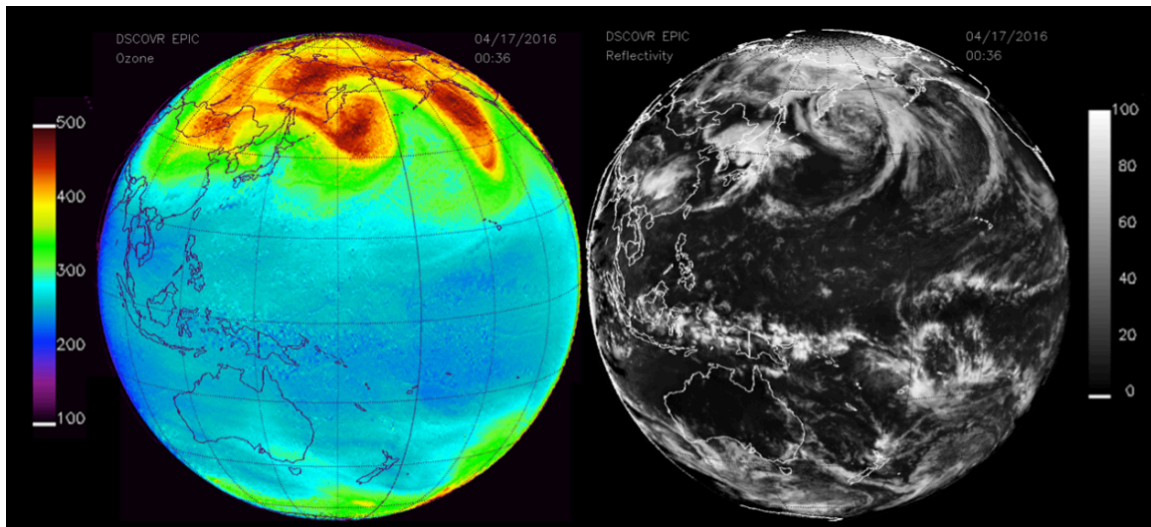


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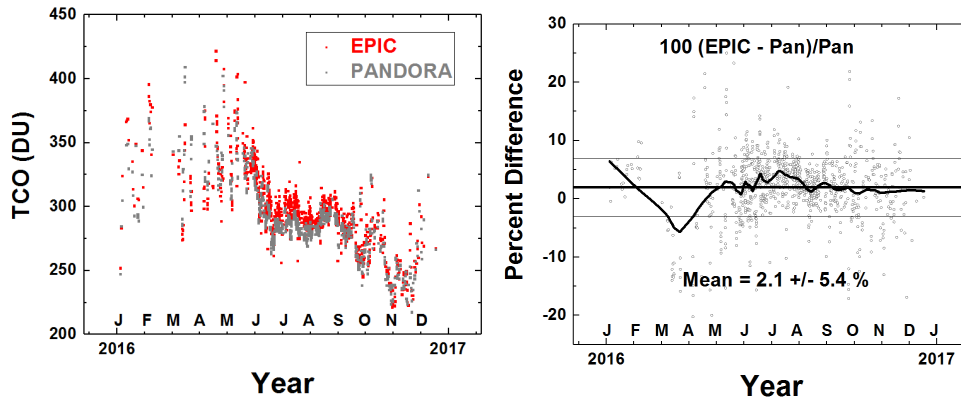


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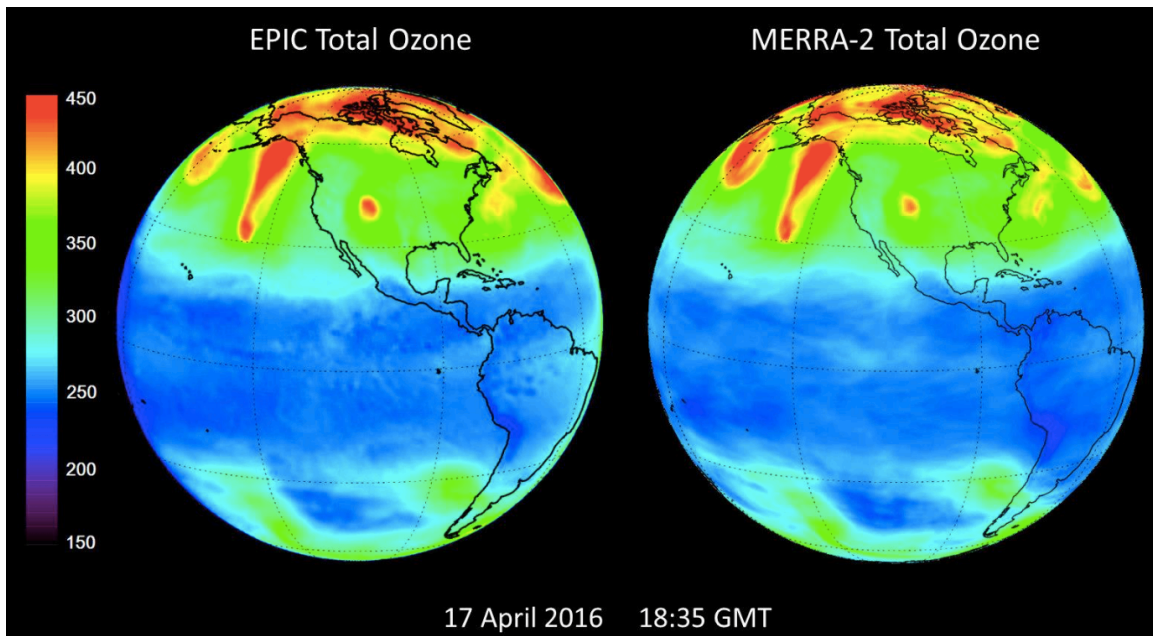


Figure 7. Comparison of EPIC total column ozone with the MERRA-2 assimilation ozone model for April 17, 2016.

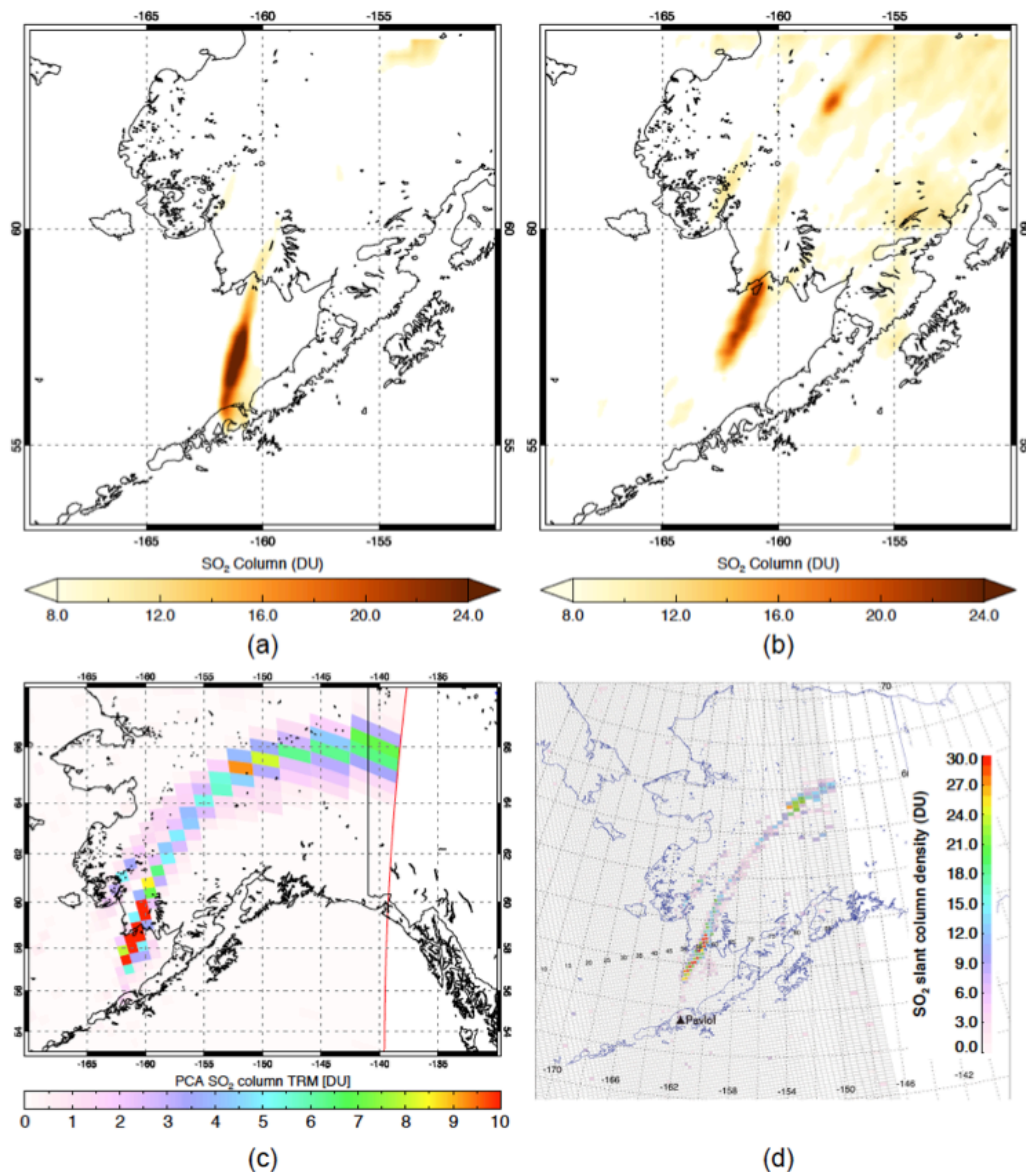


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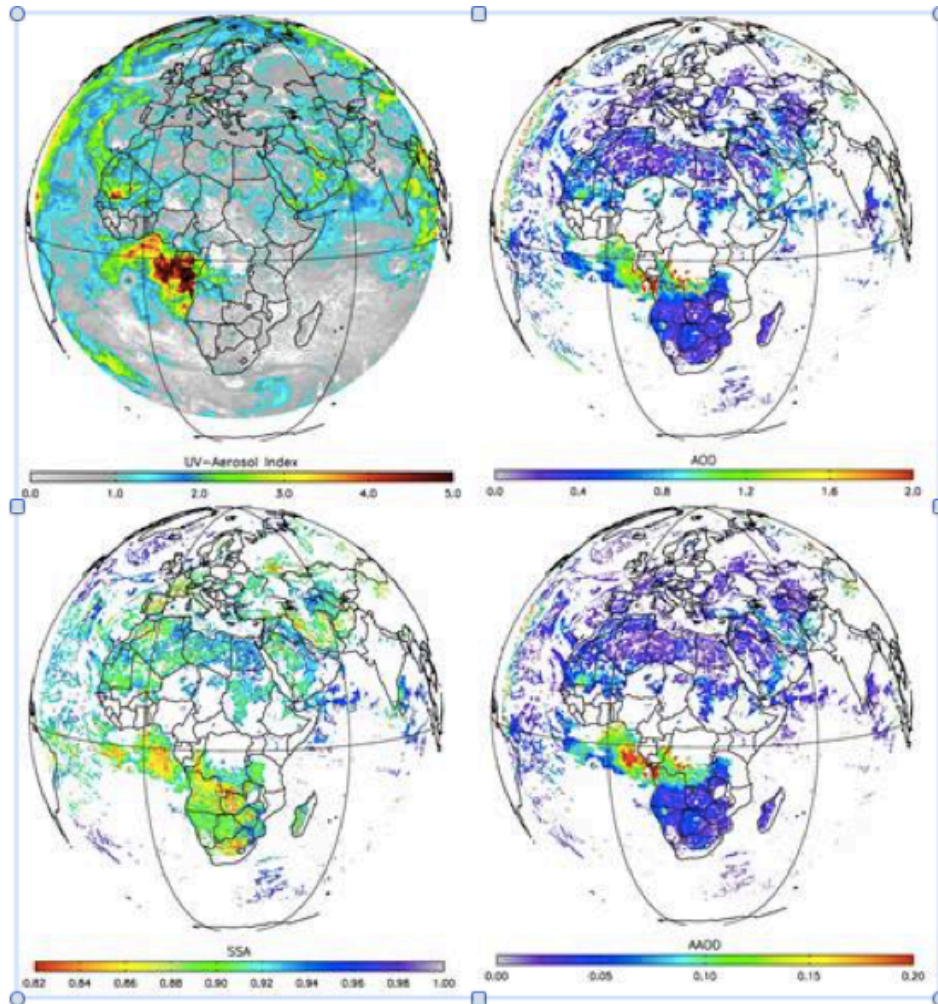


Figure 9. EPIC derived UV aerosol index (top left), 388 nm aerosol optical depth (top right), 388 nm single scattering albedo (bottom left) and aerosol absorption optical depth (bottom right) derived from observations on August 7, 2016, 10:25 UTC.

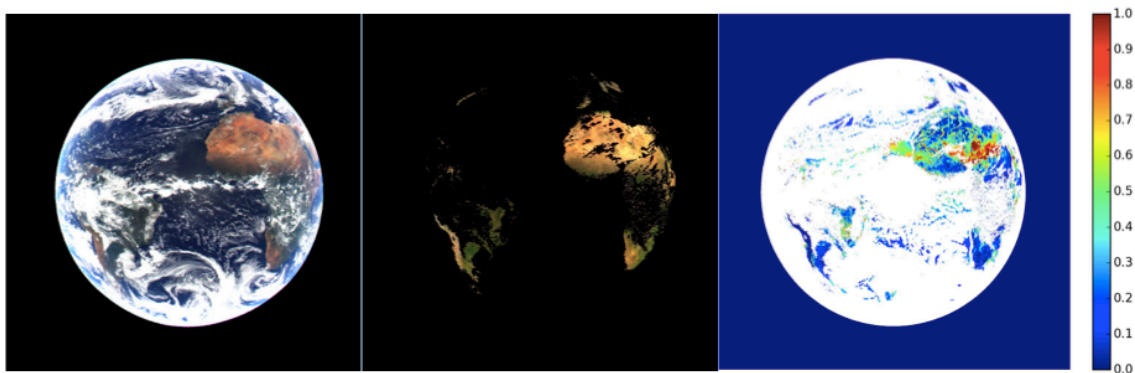


Figure 10. An example of EPIC data processing on 27 March 2016 at 1312 UTC: a) EPIC TOA RGB, b) atmospherically corrected RGB surface reflectance, 3) aerosol optical depth (AOD).

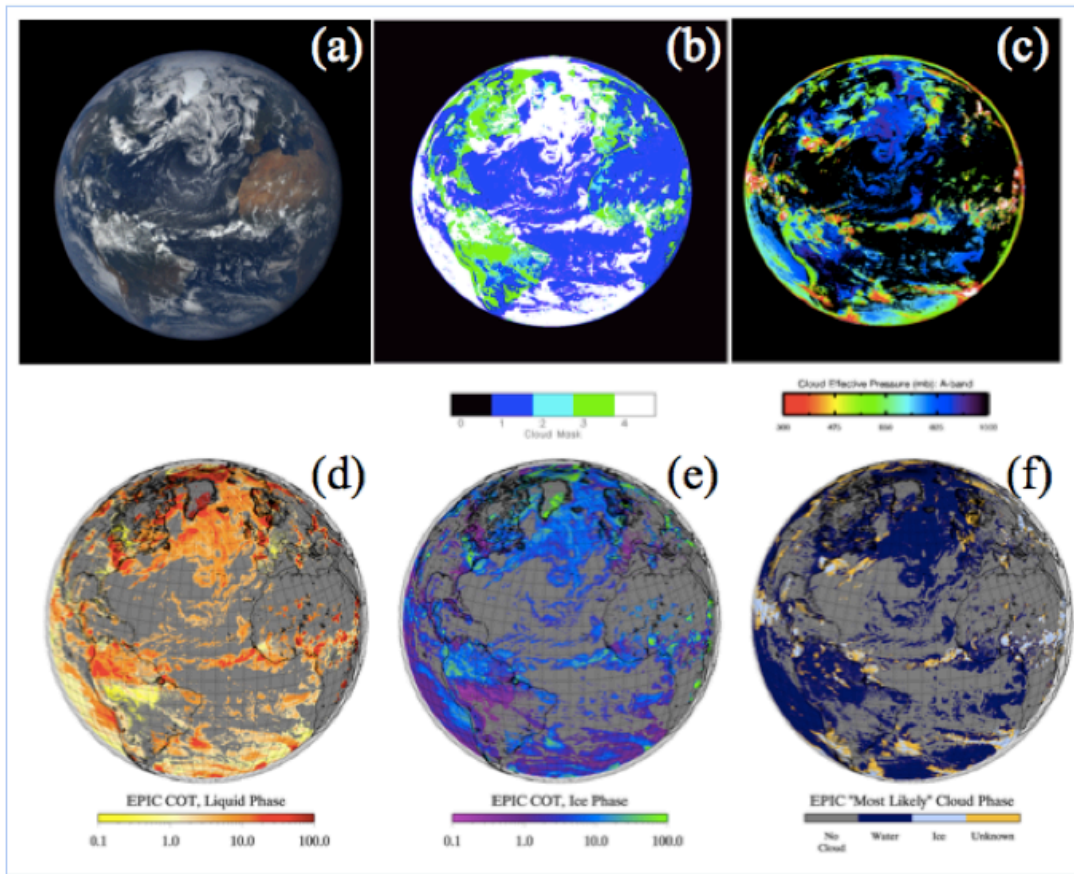


Figure 11. Sample EPIC L2 cloud products for the observations at 14:57 UTC on June 23, 2016: (a) EPIC RGB image; (b) EPIC cloud mask. 1: high confidence clear, 2: low confidence clear, 3: low confidence cloudy, and 4: high confidence cloudy; (c) oxygen A-band cloud effective pressure; (d) cloud optical thickness assuming liquid phase; (e) cloud optical thickness assuming ice phase; (f) most likely cloud phase. Other L2 cloud products not shown include oxygen B-band cloud effective pressure, and A- and B-band cloud effective height.

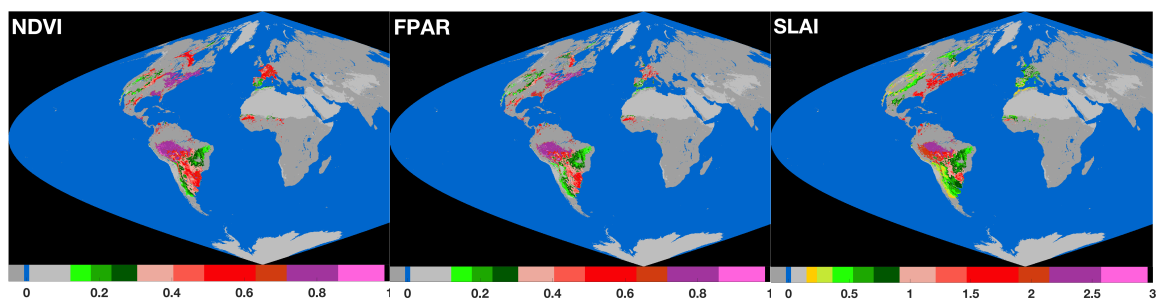
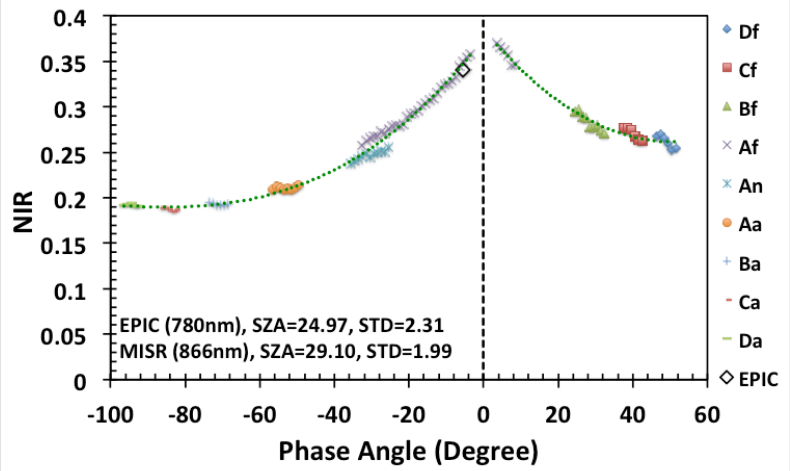


Figure 12. NDVI, FPAR and SLAI on Aug-23-2016 at 15:24:58 UTC. Corresponding EPIC image of the sunlit Earth is shown in Fig. 13.

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1180 **Figure 13.** Left panel: enhanced RGB image of the sunlit face of the Earth
1181 (<http://epic.gsfc.nasa.gov/enhanced>) taken on Aug-23-2016 at 15:24:58 UTC. Left panel: NIR BRF of an
1182 area in Amazonian rain forest shown as red circle derived from MISR data (symbols) and EPIC (white
1183 square). Horizontal axis shows values of the phase angle, i.e., the angle between directions to the Sun and
1184 sensor.

1185

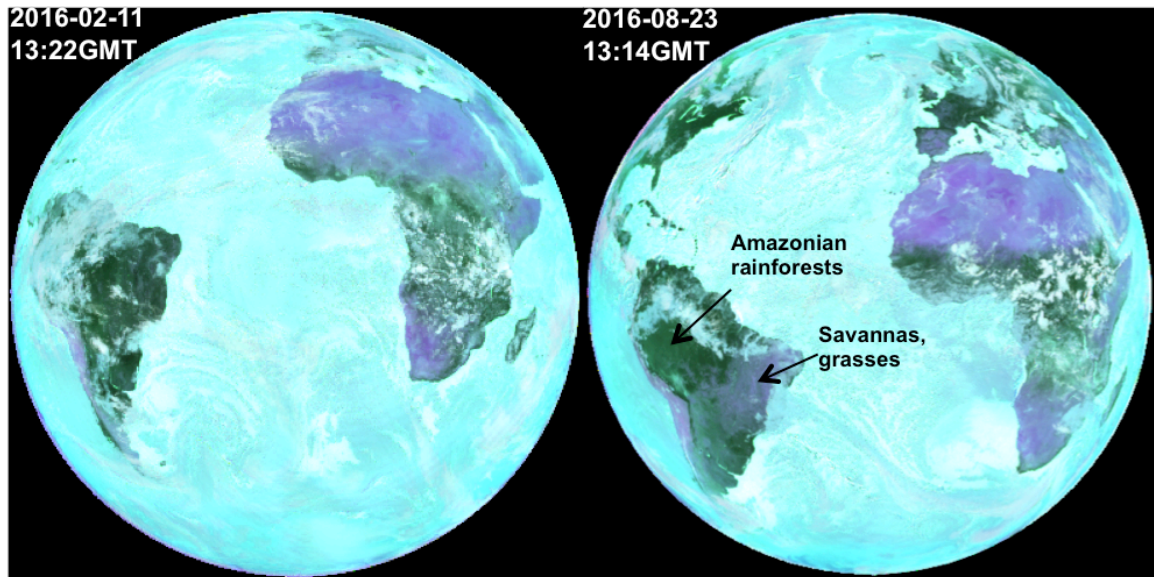


Figure 14. Vegetation dynamics. False color image (688-551-680) of the scattering coefficient derived from DSCOVr EPIC images taken on Feb-11-2016 at 13:22 UTC and Aug-23-2016 at 13:14 UTC using a simple algorithm documented in (Marshak and Knyazikhin, 2017). The green color indicates green leaves that EPIC sees through the atmosphere. The images capture changes in savannas from wet (approximately June to September) and dry (October to May) seasons when area of green leaves increases during the wet season and decreases during the dry season.

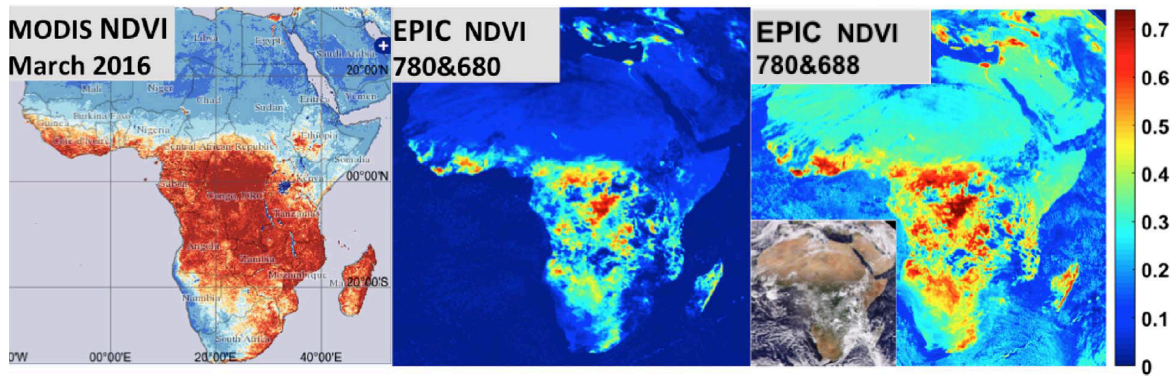


Figure 15. *MODIS and EPIC NDVIs.* The left panel shows MODIS/Terra surface NDVI composited over March, 2016 (<https://giovanni.gsfc.nasa.gov/giovanni/>). The middle and the right panels are EPIC NDVIs for March 22, 2016 (10:52 UTC) calculated with the red and O2 B-band channels, respectively. The insert in the right panel is the RGB plot. The use of the O2 B-band enhances the sensitivity of the TOA NDVI to the presence of vegetation. Note that EPIC data do not have any atmospheric correction nor cloud mask. Areas with high MODIS NDVI and very small EPIC NDVI are likely covered by clouds. From Marshak and Knyazikhin (2017).

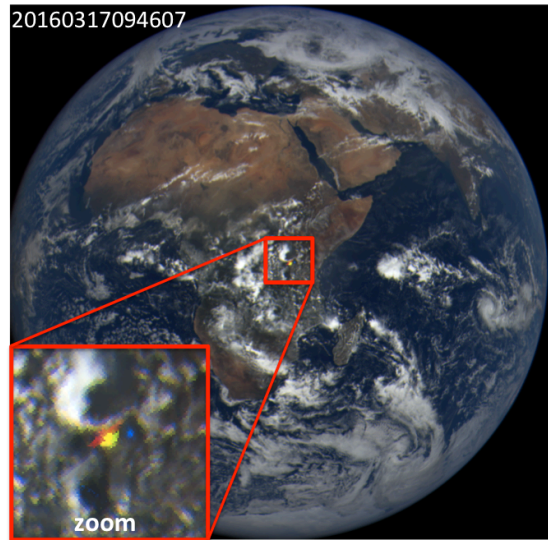


Figure 16. *An example of terrestrial glint.* A true-color composite image captured on Oct. 28, 2015 at 9:46 UTC is shown (all EPIC true-color images are available at <http://epic.gsfc.nasa.gov>). The pixel size is about $10 \times 10 \text{ km}^2$ and angular spread $\sim 3 \times 10^{-4}$ degree. A wheel inside EPIC spins color filters, causing a time lag between the component images: ~ 3 min between blue (443 nm) and green (551 nm), ~ 4 min between blue and red (680 nm), resulting in a coloration effect in the imagery. The framed region contains a bright colorful spot discernible by a naked eye and centered at 8.31° S and 25.5° E (magnified in the inset).

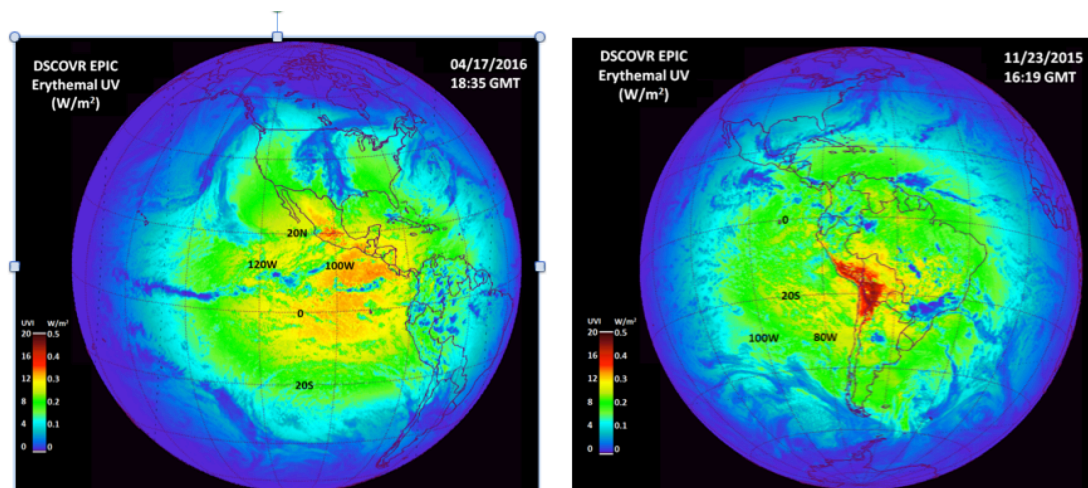


Figure 17. *Erythemal irradiance.* (a) April 1, 2016 over Central and South America. (b) November 27, 2016 over South America.